

# Mesospheric dynamical changes induced by the solar proton events in October–November 2003

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[1] The Thermosphere Ionosphere Mesosphere Electrodynamic General Circulation Model (TIME-GCM) was used to study the atmospheric dynamical influence of the solar protons that occurred in Oct–Nov 2003, the fourth largest period of solar proton events (SPEs) measured in the past 40 years. The highly energetic solar protons produced odd hydrogen ( $\text{HO}_x$ ) and odd nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_y$ ). Significant short-lived ozone decreases (10–70%) followed these enhancements of  $\text{HO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  and led to a cooling of most of the lower mesosphere. Temperature changes up to  $\pm 2.6$  K were computed as well as wind (zonal, meridional, vertical) perturbations up to 20–25% of the background winds as a result of the solar protons. The solar proton-induced mesospheric temperature and wind perturbations diminished over a period of 4–6 weeks after the SPEs. The Joule heating in the mesosphere, induced by the solar protons, was computed to be relatively insignificant for these solar storms. **Citation:** Jackman, C. H., R. G. Roble, and E. L. Fleming (2007), Mesospheric dynamical changes induced by the solar proton events in October–November 2003, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 34, L04812, doi:10.1029/2006GL028328.

## 1. Introduction

[2] Several very large solar eruptive events in late October and early November 2003 resulted in huge fluxes of charged particles at the Earth [Mewaldt *et al.*, 2005]. Much of the energy was carried by solar protons, which impacted the middle atmosphere (stratosphere and mesosphere) leading to ionizations, dissociations, dissociative ionizations, and excitations. The proton-induced atmospheric interactions resulted in the production of odd hydrogen,  $\text{HO}_x$  ( $\text{H}$ ,  $\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{HO}_2$ ), and odd nitrogen,  $\text{NO}_y$  ( $\text{N}$ ,  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{HONO}$ ,  $\text{ClONO}_2$ ,  $\text{ClNO}_2$ ,  $\text{BrONO}_2$ ) constituents either directly or through a photochemical sequence [e.g., Swider and Keneshea, 1973; Crutzen *et al.*, 1975]. There were a few periods from 26 Oct.–7 Nov., 2003, when the proton fluxes increased dramatically beyond background levels for 1–3 days. These periods are known as solar proton events (SPEs) and some of the middle atmospheric constituent influences during these SPEs have been discussed before [e.g., Jackman *et al.*, 2005a; Verronen *et al.*, 2005]. These Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs were very intense

and were computed to be the fourth largest SPE period in the past 40 years [Jackman *et al.*, 2005b].

[3] We are not aware of any measured atmospheric dynamical changes during these very significant atmospheric perturbations, however, past studies [Banks, 1979; Reagan *et al.*, 1981; Jackman and McPeters, 1985; Roble *et al.*, 1987; Reid *et al.*, 1991; Zadorozhny *et al.*, 1994; Jackman *et al.*, 1995; Krivolutsky *et al.*, 2006] have suggested that very large SPEs can lead to temperature changes through ozone depletion and/or Joule heating.

[4] In this paper, we used the latest version of the TIME-GCM (Thermosphere Ionosphere Mesosphere Electrodynamic – General Circulation Model) [Roble, 2000], which contains both ozone photochemistry and auroral particle and Joule heating, to study the influence of the very large proton fluxes during Oct./Nov. 2003 on the temperature and winds of the middle atmosphere. The TIME-GCM allowed us the opportunity to compare and contrast the different atmospheric perturbations during SPEs that lead to temperature and wind changes. We will focus on a snap-shot output from the model for one day, 30 October 2003, at 0:00 UT near a period of maximum solar proton flux to investigate these effects.

## 2. Model Description and Solar Proton Caused Constituent Change

[5] The TIME-GCM was first described by Roble and Ridley [1994]. This model has an effective  $5^\circ$  latitude  $\times$   $5^\circ$  longitude grid with 45 constant pressure surfaces in the vertical between approximately 30 and 500 km altitude with a vertical resolution of 2 grid points per scale height and a model time step of 5 minutes. The TIME-GCM has a comprehensive set of physical, chemical, and dynamical processes included to simulate the upper atmosphere and ionosphere. A detailed description of the model and its components is given by Roble [2000].

[6] The model is forced at its lower boundary of 10 hPa by global geopotential height and temperature distributions from NCEP (National Centers of Environmental Prediction) analysis. This feature provides the ability to simulate particular periods of interest, such as 27 October through 11 December 2003 for this specific study [e.g., Liu and Roble, 2005].

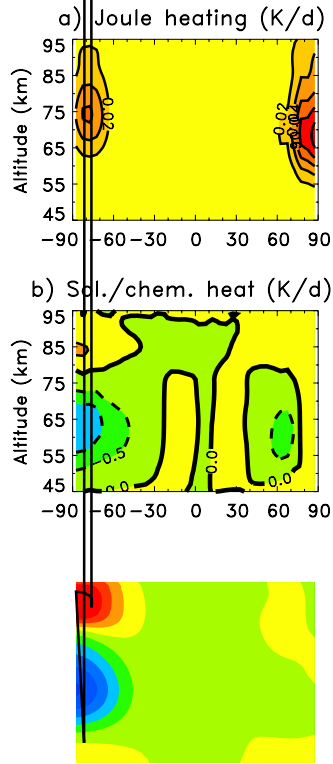
[7] We use the proton flux data provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Space Environment Center (SEC) for the NOAA Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites (GOES) (see <http://sec.noaa.gov/Data/goes.html>). The GOES 11 data are considered to be the most reliable of the current GOES datasets for the proton fluxes depositing energy into polar latitudes and were used as the source of protons in several

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pression caused by enhanced downward winds (or reduced upward winds, see Figure 3a and discussion in section 4). We computed a zonal average adiabatic heating increase in the upper polar southern mesosphere with a maximum of +2.3 K/d near 85–90 km at 0:00 UT on 30 October 2003 due to circulation changes driven by the SPE-caused ozone reductions below 80 km (see Figure 3b). Other computed adiabatic heating changes were smaller at lower southern and all northern latitudes. The Equatorial cooling above 85 km was caused by enhanced upwelling.

[18] SPE-caused enhancements in atomic oxygen in the southern polar upper mesosphere will lead to more O-CO<sub>2</sub> collisions which will result in more excited CO<sub>2</sub> molecules, another radiatively active gas, and more cooling. We compute a zonal average maximum increase in the cooling rate of +0.8 K/d (from ~7.5 K/d to ~8.3 K/d) near 90–95 km, 90°S at 0:00 UT on 30 October 2003 due to the SPEs (not shown). Computed cooling rate change from either ozone depletion or excited CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement was much smaller in the northern hemisphere.

#### 4. Computed Dynamical Changes

[19] Dynamical (temperature and wind) changes have long been associated with SPEs. Temperature decreases of 1–10 K were computed to follow from very

large SPEs in several studies [Reagan *et al.*, 1981; Jackman and McPeters, 1985; Roble *et al.*, 1987; Reid *et al.*, 1991; Zadorozhny *et al.*, 1994; Jackman *et al.*, 1995; Krivolutsky *et al.*, 2006]. Large temperature decreases of 14 K near 50 km were deduced as a result of a meteorological rocket campaign during the huge Oct. 1989 SPEs [Zadorozhny *et al.*, 1994]. Krivolutsky *et al.* [2006] derived temperature decreases of 10 K near 65 km and increases of 10 K near 80 km using UARS HALOE measurements during the very large July 2000 SPE. Kubo *et al.* [2003] deduced temperature increases near 93 km of 8 K as a result of the July 2000 SPE with the Svalbard Radar.

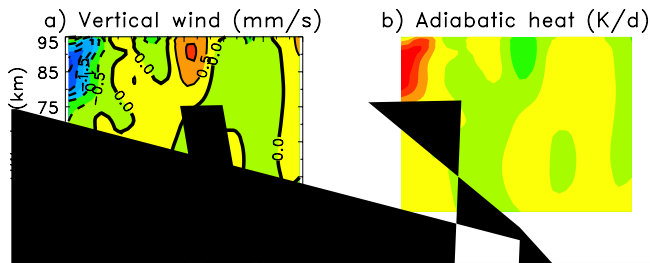
[20] The heating and cooling rate changes ultimately led to calculated temperature variations as a result of the Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs. The largest temperature changes in the lower to middle mesosphere were driven by the ozone decreases, which forced both heating and cooling rate changes. The heating rate reductions dominated the effect and resulted in temperature decreases of a zonal average maximum of –2.6 K on 30 Oct. 2003 near 65 km, 90°S (see Figure 2c). Most of the middle and high latitude mesosphere was dominated by decreases in temperature. These computed temperature decreases were modest compared to those measured for other very large SPEs [Zadorozhny *et al.*, 1994; Krivolutsky *et al.*, 2006], however, they are similar to several other model computations [Reagan *et al.*, 1981; Jackman and McPeters, 1985; Roble *et al.*, 1987; Reid *et al.*, 1991; Jackman *et al.*, 1995].

[21] Net heating rate increases due to adiabatic heating and cooling rate increases caused by enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> excitation were of significance in the upper mesosphere. The adiabatic heating change dominated and resulted in predicted temperature increases of a zonal maximum of +2.5 K on 30 Oct. 2003 near 90 km, 90°S (see Figure 2c). These computed temperature increases were smaller than those deduced from measurements during another very large SPE, the so called Bastille Day storm of July 2000 [Kubo *et al.*, 2003; Krivolutsky *et al.*, 2006].

[22] The predicted temperature changes are mainly concentrated in the sunlit southern hemisphere and were very small in the northern hemisphere. The maximum temperature changes are about a 1–2% variation compared with the background temperature distribution.

[23] Other dynamical changes including variations in mesospheric winds have been observed associated with SPEs in 1982, 1984, and 1989 [Rottger, 1992; Johnson and Luhmann, 1993]. The model computed zonal, meridional, and vertical winds were all perturbed as a result of the Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs. The zonal wind was forced to be more westerly by the SPEs resulting in a zonal average maximum speed change of 2.4 m/s on 30 Oct. 2003 near 80 km, 65°S (not shown). These changes were modest when compared with the background and amounted to a maximum change of about 20% in the SH, primarily opposing the prevailing easterlies at this time of year.

[24] The meridional wind was forced to be generally more southerly in the SH resulting in a zonal average maximum speed change of –0.8 m/s on 30 Oct. 2003 near 95 km, 65°S (not shown). These changes were modest compared with the background and amounted to about a 20–25% change near the SH mesopause, primarily opposing the general northerly flow at this time of year.



[25] The vertical wind was forced to be zero in the SH with a maximum change of  $-0.5$  mm/s in 2003 near 88 km,  $90^\circ\text{S}$  (Figure 3a). The change is again modest compared to the background, which is to about a 20% change in the upper poleward region, primarily opposing the general upward motion of year. The reduced upward motion then reduces the adiabatic heating change (Figure 3b). The heating of the upper mesosphere there that is discussed in section 3.

[26] A simulation was completed for the period from through 11 Dec. 2003 to study the long-term dynamical influence. We found that the perturbation in the mesosphere was fairly quickly damped, such that the impact of the Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs was confined to about 10 days near the beginning of 2003. The majority of the mesospheric response to the SPEs diminish over a period of several weeks. The maximum dynamical impact is confined to about 10 days near the beginning of 2003.

[27] Could these computed changes have significantly influenced the mesospheric chemistry in Oct.–Dec. of 2003? This is a difficult question when focusing on the  $\text{NO}_y$  created during SPEs, which is an important factor in prolonging the lifetime of  $\text{NO}_y$  [Jackman *et al.*, 2005a]. Although the computed changes have been altered by the Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs, the change did not significantly impact the transport of  $\text{NO}_y$ . The vertical winds were altered by a maximum of about 20% and there was no significant change in the next few weeks.

## 5. Sensitivity Studies and Uncertainties

[28] We investigated the sensitivity of the seasonal timing of the SPEs and also the magnitude of the 2000 (Bastille Day) and 2003 (Oct./Nov. 2003) SPEs. The computed dynamical responses for the July 2000 and Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs, however, the response in the NH, the sunlit hemisphere of the ionosphere is apparent in the sunlit hemisphere because of the very substantial impact on heating of the ionosphere decreases.

[29] Since the dynamical effects of the Oct./Nov. 2003 SPEs were relatively modest, we performed a sensitivity study in which the proton flux was enhanced by a factor of 10 to determine the effects on the perturbed state. We found that the effects were almost a factor of 10 in the perturbed simulation. The mesospheric impact saturation, the mesospheric dynamical response to the depletion, the mesospheric response to the depletion of ozone destruction, which is a factor of 10 in the SH mesosphere. The number of uncertainties in the simulation is: 1) the magnitude of the input proton flux; 2) possible latitudinal and longitudinal variations in the ionization rates, which are not uniform over the polar caps; 3) a relatively coarse latitude-longitude and two grid point per degree latitude, which will not simulate small scale features; 4) uncertainties in the input photochemical rates; and 5) uncertainties in the input of physical processes (e.g., gravity waves). The TIME-GCM is validated against measurements [e.g., Roble, 1995] and is shown to represent the large-scale features fairly well.

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